DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 216 221 CE 032 647

TITLE Supervision and Consultation. Leadership Pamphlet #7.
INSTITUTION Adult Education Association of U.S.A., Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE 56
NOTE 53p.; For related documents see CE 032 641-656.

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Administrator Responsibility; *Adult Education; *Consultants; *Helping Relationship; Leaders; Leadership; *Leadership Training; *Supervisors; Supervisory Methods; *Supervisory Training; Vertical Organization

ABSTRACT

This pamphlet on supervision and consultation is the seventh of 16 in a series to provide leaders in adult activities with sound introductory material to give practical help in using a method of adult education or working in a particular area. Its objective is to help leaders learn how to perform activities of both the supervisor and consultant. Nine articles and how-tos are included. "The Helping Relationship" considers the principles involved in helping someone. Some principles to guide supervisors in carrying out their responsibilities--seeing jobs are performed and coordinating these jobs so organizational goals will be achieved--are presented in "Fitting the Person to the Job" and "Making the Organization Work." "The Three Contacts in Supervision" describes the hierarchical relationships within which the supervisor works and the special demands of these relationships. "Putting Principles into Practice" develops the problem of being able to understand and communicate with people one works with. "Training for Supervisory Development" presents ideas for training supervisors and getting organizations to accept the idea of training supervisory staff. The last three articles examine the problems of the non-hierarchical consultant relationship. They are "Stresses in Consultation," "Helping the Client Help You," and "Helping the Consultant Help You." (YLB)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED216221

Leadership Pamphlet # 7 60¢

A practical aid to leaders in education, government, welfare, health, farm, labor, religion, industry, and the community . . .

SUPERVISION AND CONSULTATION

AIDS TO UNDERSTANDING HOW TO:

- increase job satisfaction
- improve organizational structure
- build better working relations
- solve more problems on the job

Adult Education Association of the U.S.A.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

B. Copeland

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

CE032647

Leadership Pamphlets are prepared and distributed by the Adult Education Association of the U.S.A. Each pamphlet provides leaders in adult activities with sound introductory material which can give practical help in using an important method of adult education or working in a particular area with insight and skill.

Pamphlets in this series are:

P1 —How to Lead Discussions
P2 —Planning Better Programs
P3 —Taking Action in the Community
P4 —Understanding How Groups Work
P5 —How to Teach Adults
P6 —How to Use Role Playing
P7 —Supervision and Consultation
P8 —Training Group Leaders
P9 —Conducting Workshops and Institutes
P10—Working with Volunteers
P11—Conferences that Work
P12—Getting and Keeping Members
P13—Effective Public Relations
P14—Better Boards and Committees
P15—Streamlining Parliamentary Procedure
P16—Training in Human Relations
P17—Education for Aging
P18—Leading the Learning Group

Prices for one or any combination of pamphlets are:

One copy	$ .60
Two pamphlets	.50 each
3 to 24	.40 each
25 to 99	.35 each
100 and over	.30 each

For AEA members only

One copy	.50
Any three pamphlets	1.00

Copyright © 1956

Adult Education Association of the U.S.A.
1225 Nineteenth Street, Northwest
Washington, D.C. 20036

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction ---------- 3

The Helping Relationship ---------- 5
By David H. Henkins, *Temple University*

Fitting the Person to the Job ---------- 7
By Gale Jensen, *Grinnell College*

Making Organizations Work ---------- 10
By Gale Jensen

The 3 Contacts in Supervision ---------- 17
By Edward Toporeck, *Ramo-Wooldridge Corp.*

Putting Principles into Practice ---------- 21
By Marvin A. Klemes, *M.D.*

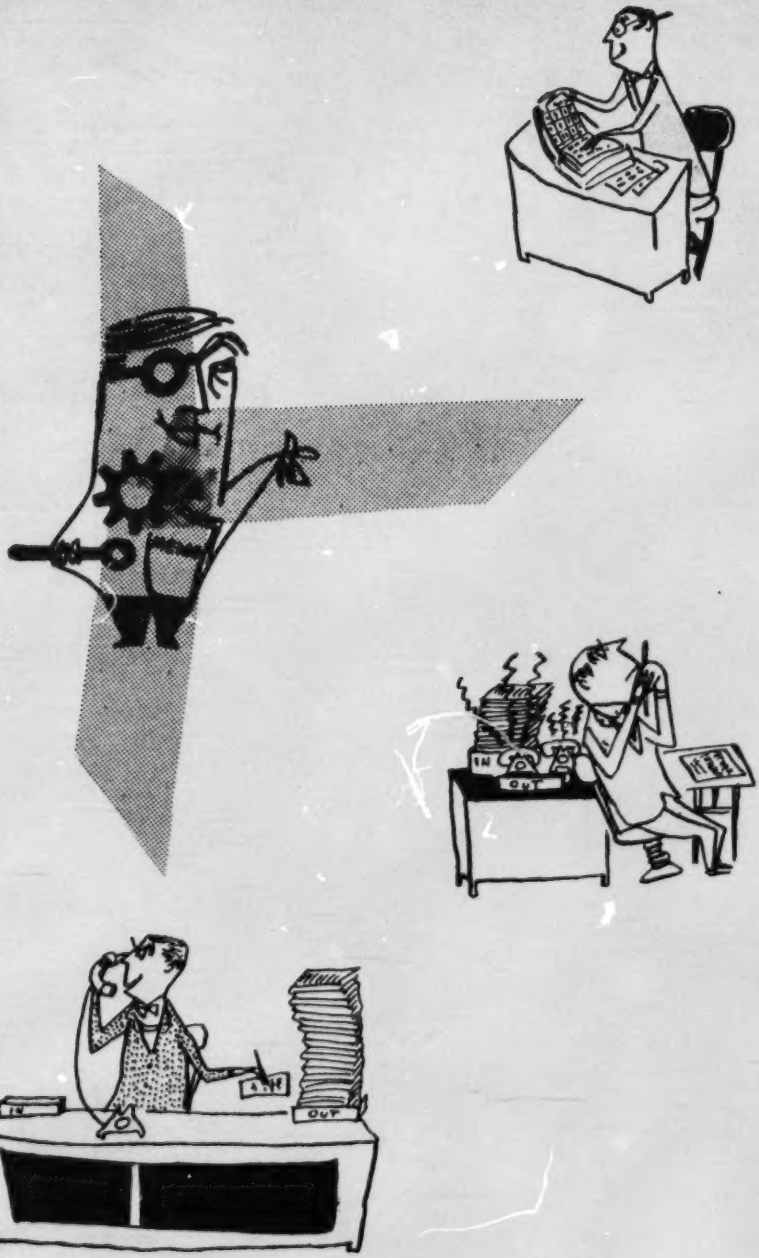
Training for Supervisory Development ---------- 25
By Paul C. Buchanan, *Naval Ordnance Test Station, China Lake, Calif.*

Stresses in Consultation ---------- 33
By W. W. Charters, Jr., *Univ. of Illinois*

Helping the Client Help You ---------- 38
From articles by Jacob S. Kounin, *Wayne Univ.* & Edward S. Bordin, *Univ. of Michigan*

Helping the Consultant Help You ---------- 45
By Nell McKeever, *U.S. Dept. of Health, Education, & Welfare*

For Further Study ---------- Inside Back Cover


IN
OUT
IN
OUT

INTRODUCTION

It is frequently said that the only difference between supervision and consultation is that the latter is voluntary. Even this distinction breaks down, however, as Nell McKeever reminds us in "Helping the Consultant Help You", when she discusses how to handle the 'consultant you didn't ask for'. Since both supervision and consultation may take place on an individual or group basis, this doesn't constitute a difference, either.

The essential difference between supervision and consultation seems to lie in the fact that the supervisor is *responsible* for the work of the person supervised, but the consultant is not directly responsible for the work of his client. The supervisor must direct the work of those he supervises, as well as help them, but the consultant may concentrate exclusively on helping the client understand his problem.

Supervision is at the heart of productive human organization. When there is a division of labor someone has to carry the responsibility of seeing that the various special jobs are being performed, and of co-ordinating these jobs so the goals of the organization will be achieved. In "Fitting the Person to the Job" and "Making Organization Work" Gale Jensen presents some principles to guide supervisors in carrying out these responsibilities.

We find people with supervisory responsibilities at all levels in an organization—people who are giving direction, coordinating, and *educating*. For one of the main tasks of the supervisor is to help those with whom he works to improve their effectiveness. This is an educative job. The supervisor demonstrates, explains, and illustrates—he teaches. The way he handles his relationship will determine how educative the work experience is for those who work under his direction. The supervisor has a complex job, however, as his responsibility to coordinate and give direction may not always seem in harmony with his educative responsibility—and it well may not be.

In "The Three Contacts in Supervision" Edward Toporeck describes the hierarchical relationships within

which the supervisor works, and the special demands of these relationships. Marvin Klemes' "Putting Principles into Practice" develops the acute problem of being able to understand and communicate with the people we work with. Paul Buchanan presents some ideas for training supervisors and for getting organizations to accept the idea of training their supervisory staff.

The consultant role, where a person gives help but has no direct responsibility for the outcome, is the more purely educative role. Thus, the more a supervisor is able to assume an educative relationship to those he supervises, the more his role approaches that of a consultant.

The last three articles examine the problems of the non-hierarchical consultant relationship. Problems there will always be between consultants and clients, says W. W. Charters, Jr. in "Stresses in Consultation", but he nevertheless is able to show several ways in which these stresses can be minimized.

Jacob Kounin and Edward Bordin in "Helping the Client Help You", and Nell McKeever in "Helping the Consultant Help You", take up the ways of establishing rapport, understanding, and communication between consultants and clients. ◇◇

THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP

How do we help someone else? That seems to be a very simple question—we tell him what he wants or needs to know. But does that really help him? We find ourselves wondering later why he didn't take our suggestion. Obviously, it was a good one!

When we turn the question around, we find quite a different story. When people are really helpful to us, what do they do? Now, immediately we are reminded of the many times someone tried to impose his help on us and we didn't like it. Or we asked a simple question (at least *we* thought so) and he didn't give us any answer even though he talked a long time. Sometimes when we asked for help, someone tried to take our problem out of our hands and solve it for us. We didn't like that, either. It made us feel inadequate.

It is very difficult to describe what happened when someone was truly helpful to us. Perhaps all we can remember is that we talked with him for a while; he asked a few questions which seemed to make sense to us, and we began to think more clearly about the difficulties we were having.

The person who helped us, however, was probably following some such principles as these:

1. He made it clear to us that he was not "taking over" the problem. It was still our problem—we had the responsibility for it and we had to do our own think-

Excerpted from an article originally published in *School of Education Bulletin*, University of Michigan, v. 22, no. 5, Feb., 1951.

ing about it. Maybe we resented a little his not giving us an immediate solution, but *he helped us to see that he couldn't solve our problem for us.*

2. He indicated in many ways that we were neither stupid nor unusual because we had a problem. We didn't feel branded as failures. *He accepted our problem as a matter of course.*

3. He helped us see the values of working on the problem. He pointed out that it would be very much worth our while to seek the best answer to the problem, and *he made us feel encouraged about it.*

4. He seemed to be aware of some reasons why we were having the difficulty, but he didn't tell us what was wrong with us. *He helped us to find a positive approach to the problem and to discover our own confusions in thinking.*

5. He asked us valuable questions about the nature of the problem, why it occurred, and what symptoms of it were evident. *He helped us to see the need for diagnosing the problem* before thinking about solutions to it.

6. As we talked further *he helped us to set up some criteria for testing our ideas about solutions.* We found it much easier to determine which ideas were likely to be fruitful.

Three things happened to us when we were helped in this way: (a) we were allowed to maintain our personal integrity and self-respect, (b) we were given increased motivation to work on the problem, (c) we were given help on methods of solving problems. We gained both a greater confidence in ourselves and an increased ability to cope with our own difficulties.

These principles suggest the need for a basic attitude on our part when we are trying to be helpful. Rather than asking ourselves, when someone comes for help, "How would *I* solve this difficulty?" we must ask, instead, "How can I help *this* person to solve *his* difficulty?" We must focus on the person who has the problem and try to understand why he is having difficulty, instead of focusing on the problem he brings. We need to remember that it is a problem for this particular individual, and that no doubt it exists primarily because of confused thinking, inappropriate attitudes, or misinterpreted impressions. These are the things we must work with. ◇ ◇

FITTING THE PERSON TO THE JOB

It may be accepted almost as a maxim: any time a member of an organization feels that the satisfactions he gets from a role are too few or come too slowly, he will begin to employ some of his energies toward changing the situation. This dissatisfaction he feels with his role, especially if it continues for a long time, lowers the operating efficiency of the organization.

Some dissatisfaction, of course, is to be expected from members of any formal organization. The problem is to prevent role dissatisfaction from becoming so great that it will block achievement of goals and threaten organizational disintegration.

Here is the crux of the thing: every member of an organization has personality needs he must gratify through whatever role he fills. And every role in the organization has *some* potentiality for meeting these personality needs. To the degree that the role does meet the needs, he experiences "role satisfaction!" And the organization benefits to that extent. There might be said to be a general rule: *In assigning members to their respective roles within an organization, the members' preferences, as far as possible, should be considered.*

Members Who Have Job Skills

Every member of an organization will vary with respect to the time and energy he desires to devote to the job detail, the "know-how" of his specific role, or what might be called for identification purposes, "formal work." A bookkeeper, for instance, or a chemist, might be wholly absorbed in formal work activities, preferring not to be involved in situations requiring frequent decisions, collaboration and communication with other people, and the like.

A person of this kind derives his greatest rewards,

secures his greatest job satisfactions through absorption in formal work activities. He is work centered. It is of particular importance that he possess the knowledge and skills required for adequate performance of his activities. If he does not possess them, he is likely to feel unhappy and insecure in his job. He will be seen by other members as the person who is causing a breakdown in operations. He will not obtain the satisfactions that accrue to a person from having taken part in a "job well done." He cannot obtain praise from appreciative colleagues. Very likely he will not "make much money." In general, the work centered person prefers to be left undisturbed to do his job, and should not be assigned roles carrying many communications or decision-making responsibilities.

Members Who Like to Make Decisions

If a person has a desire to assume broad responsibilities and powers, if he wishes to undertake the responsibilities that go with making decisions—and if he is denied this opportunity—then, even though the job fits his needs in all other respects, his satisfaction in the role assigned to him will still be low. To provide for his needs he might seek to make decisions beyond those assigned to his role. Such efforts would be certain to cause other members of the organization to become concerned; organizational morale and production would suffer.

Members Who Like to Communicate with Other Members

A person who needs to know "what's going on in the whole place all the time" gets high satisfaction from a role that carries numerous communications activities. He is at the opposite pole from the work centered person who requires specialized knowledge and skills.

Members Who Want to Influence Others

Each member of an organization has a certain amount of personal power he can exercise to influence other members to act in certain ways. If a person is to be satisfied with the role he holds, the extent to which his role *permits* him to exercise his personal influence must be commensurate with his *desire* to exercise that influence. For example, if a person fills a role that contains a number of relatively unimportant and isolated jobs with no important decision-making or communications

activities, the person will have little opportunity to influence the organization. If he has a great desire to influence, he will quickly become dissatisfied with his role.

Members Who Want to Make Friends

People vary as to their needs for intimate discussions and friendship experiences with others. Some people have a constant need for talking about their reactions to a job situation. Others do not have this persistent need. The spacial and social position of some roles in an organization permit easy friendship relations. On the contrary, the watchman for a country railroad crossing provides us with an example of a person in an "isolated" role, both socially and spacially. In such a role it is difficult for a person to set up friendly relations with other members of the organization.

In brief, if a person is to be satisfied with the role he occupies, the role must permit him to establish whatever degree of intimate friendship relations he requires to meet his personal needs.

Members Who Want Privileges

Some members may want to acquire personal privileges. They may even be more interested in enjoying the privileges and respect which go with a role than they are in making contributions to the work of their organization. Other members may be embarrassed by what they judge to be the excessive privileges given them. And a person who gets his satisfactions through work contributions will probably be made uncomfortable if he receives any great number of privileges. On the other hand, if a member wants more privileges than he can get through the organizational role he happens to fill, he will become dissatisfied.

Each member has a pattern of needs he strives to gratify. Each organizational role has different kinds of activities connected with it, such as work, decision-making, and communications activities. Each role has different opportunities for making friendships and for winning recognition. Each role has different privileges and prerogatives attached to it. The problem in any organization is to place members with various personality needs in roles that provide opportunities for meeting these needs.

◇ ◇

DIAGNOSING AN ORGANIZATION'S

1. Have all necessary tasks been assigned to someone so that there are no gaps in the production process?

2. Are the various tasks carried out in the most efficient order or sequence?

3. Are authority and task functions coordinated so that work is not halted or slowed down when decisions are made?

4. Are all the authority functions that have been assigned related and necessary to the work of the organization?

5. Does the authority assigned to different members conflict or overlap anywhere?

6. Is everyone clear about what authority rests in what roles?

7. Can members easily share needed information?

8. Do members feel free to express their

The work of each member of an organization is connected with the work of other members through one or more of the organization's *internal structures.* In setting about to improve the operation of an organization the first step is to examine these internal structures to find the sources of difficulty. Next, it is necessary to plan appropriate changes; and finally, to take whatever action is necessary to effect the changes.

Diagnosis is the tool we use to discover how the relationships between jobs in the internal structures may

WORK STRUCTURE

real feelings and views about the work of the organization?

9. Do members desire to contribute their talents and abilities to the work as fully as they can?

10. Are members mutually concerned about providing for each other's needs?

11. Are members able to form informal groups easily?

12. Are informal groups primarily concerned with personal affairs or with unresolved problems which exist in the internal structures?

13. Do members think that rewards, in the form of job satisfaction and privileges, are well balanced?

14. Do all members have some opportunity to share in the prestige and privilege rewards available in the organization?

be helping or hindering an organization in achieving its avowed goals. Through diagnosis we try to find out how structural patterns affect the way the organization's human and material resources are used. Suppose, for example, that customers of a mail order house complain because purchases are slow in arriving. Diagnosis might reveal that not enough people had been assigned to the *task structure*. On the other hand, diagnosis might show that although there is sufficient staff, the various jobs within the task structure are not well coordinated by those

in positions of *authority*. This would probably mean that people assigned to task functions were, of necessity, spending much time assuming authority functions which had to be done, but which were not formally assigned to them. In this example, the case would probably be further complicated and confused at points of decision because members were confronted with unofficial and unrelated authority functions.

If diagnosis is to play an important part in improving organizational operation, it must reveal how the internal structures facilitate or limit members in their efforts to relate their work to that of others. The diagnostic questions given elsewhere in this article may help you start.

PRESCRIBING CHANGES

When diagnosis has located the trouble spots, changes need to be set in motion to remove them. In order to prescribe changes that will improve relations between members and between the structures, it is necessary to have some picture of what is required for effective operation. The following 14 points help to indicate the conditions which should exist in each of the internal structures in order to insure full use of the organization's resources:

Work Requirements

1. The jobs assigned in an organization must encompass all the tasks that have to be performed to accomplish the goals of the organization. Some roles may require the person filling them to do more than one task; others, only one, and some none. For example, a factory foreman may perform very few jobs directly connected with making a product. Most of his time will be spent in performing authority and communication functions. On the other hand, each of the workers in his section will probably perform several jobs directly connected with making a product. But however they are grouped, all the individual jobs needed to accomplish the overall task must be found within the formally identified roles of the organization.

2. Task functions must be performed in a sequence that will use the resources of the organization most efficiently. The sequence in which jobs can be performed with the least loss of time and motion makes up the basic work formula for achieving maximum efficiency.

Authority Requirements

3. The authority functions assigned to various roles in an organization must be coordinated with the task functions in a way that makes it unnecessary to slow down or stop work when decisions have to be made. Confusion occurs when decisions that have not been anticipated by the authority structure have to be made about operations in the task structure.

4. Authority functions assigned to various roles must be needed by the organization. Whenever authority functions are assigned that have little real relationship to the work of the organization, their use tends to impede members in making decisions.

5. Authority functions must not overlap or conflict with one another. Whenever members of an organization are in doubt about who is supposed to make certain decisions, members turn their efforts towards dealing with this confusion and away from their customary work.

6. Everyone in an organization must know exactly which people in the organization are responsible for what authority functions. When new decisions are needed, members must know to whom the problem should be referred for decision. This requires that people in the organization understand what the authority structure of the organization is.

Communication Requirements

7. If an organization is to be productive, the communication structure must channel information so that all the jobs can be effectively coordinated with one another. When communication is blocked in any way, conflicting actions are likely because members operate with different facts.

Power Requirements

8. The power of an organization greatly depends on having its members more interested in trying to satisfy

each other's needs than with limiting attempts to satisfy needs. When members get satisfaction from their work easily, the organization proves highly attractive to its members, and they are more willing to withstand difficulties that cannot be avoided. When members try to deprive other members of opportunities to get satisfaction from their work, the organization may be so unattractive that its very existence is threatened when trying situations arise.

9. Members must feel free to participate in the work of the organization without suppressing their real feelings and ideas about situations in which they are involved. Whenever some members prevent others from expressing their ideas and feelings or from taking action they feel is needed, the organization may become unable to take united action when a situation requires all members to take part.

10. Members must want to contribute their talents to the work of the organization. Withholding of resources and abilities lessens productivity, especially if it takes the form of apathy or passive resistance.

Friendship Requirements

11. Members must be free to form friendly relations with others easily. If friendship groups cannot form easily, people will have no opportunities for dealing with personal anxieties. Tension will increase to the point where an explosion will occur or some sort of underground system will develop.

12. In informal friendship relations, discussion should center on more or less personal concerns and experiences in the organization. When discussion in informal groups becomes focused on difficulties that arise within the various formal structures, the informal friendship structure no longer provides an outlet for reducing anxieties and releasing tensions. Rather it is being used to develop competing task, authority, communication, and power structures. When this happens, tensions and anxieties rise rather than lessen.

Prestige Requirements

13. The organization must provide an acceptable

balance between satisfaction received through contributions to the overall goal and satisfactions received through privileges. Tensions mount when members feel they are under-rewarded either in job satisfaction or privileges which they feel ought to come from the performance of their jobs.

14. There must be some opportunity for all members to obtain a share of the prestige and privilege rewards available within the organization. When opportunity to gain these kinds of rewards is extremely limited, or when most of the rewards go to a small number of people, those who are making valuable contributions but who receive few privilege rewards may protest or even withdraw their services.

GUIDES TO ACTION

Here are a few rules for carrying out the changes that have been planned:*

1. Members who organize and direct action to bring about prescribed changes should be people who are held in high personal regard in the organization. This does not mean that they should be a group composed mainly of important people. It means rather that they should be recognized by others because of the contributions they have made to the welfare of members and of the work of the organization. When the people suggesting changes are considered "one of us," the threat of being manipulated into doing something primarily for the benefit of *someone else* tends to be replaced by a feeling that the changes are designed "to help us."

2. If changes are to be made successfully, members directing the efforts must know why and how much all members find the organization attractive. When membership in an organization meets people's needs in ways that are important to them, they will seriously consider any changes suggested to them in order to maintain their membership. Steps towards change, therefore, must not strain the attraction forces beyond the breaking point. Rather they should aim to increase the members' involvement in the organization.

3. If change is to take place successfully, all mem-

bers must see the need for it. Frequently the members of an organization being asked to change diagnose the organization's problems quite differently from the way they have been diagnosed by those suggesting the changes. In such instances, those initiating the change should make the facts they have available to all members of the organization. Whenever possible, those who are being asked to change might well participate in the collection of the facts needed for making accurate diagnoses.

4. Members should feel that proposed changes will increase the rewards they get from belonging to the organization. If the proposed changes are seen as bringing potentially greater benefits from membership, members will be more willing to change.

5. Plans for change should not require certain members to deviate greatly from the established customs of the organization while allowing others to act as they have in the past. Double standards of this kind can only produce tension and resistance in the whole organization. If changes are to be made in customary practices, all members must appreciate that these changes need to be made and should experience what the new procedures are like.

6. Because the jobs in an organization represent a network of human interaction, any changes in one part of the organization will affect other parts. Therefore, when provisions are made for changes in some jobs and not in those closely related to them, the proposed changes are likely to be rejected because of the strains they produce in the established pattern of working relationships. Plans for change, therefore, must take account not only of the jobs where the changes are primarily focused, but also of all the jobs which are closely related to these primary target points.

---

*Credit for the original formulation of these rules should be given to Dorwin Cartwright of the Research Center for Group Dynamics, University of Michigan.

THE 3 CONTACTS IN SUPERVISION

There are three main contacts the supervisor will make in his job: those with his employees, those with his fellow supervisors, and those with his superior.

His success or failure will depend on how well his employees perform. This, in turn, will depend on such factors as: how well he teaches his employees to do their job; how clearly he gives direction about when and where to do it; how much team spirit he develops in his group; and how well he understands them.

Further, each supervisor is dependent on his fellow supervisors. If, for example, the instrument group underexposes films so no pictures are available, then the data group cannot do their part and the whole job breaks down. If the pictures are very weak, then the data group's attempts to measure may result in severe eyestrain, long delays, people quitting, etc.

Lastly, the new supervisor has a superior to whom he is responsible for performance. In doing his job the supervisor needs help, information, advice, plans for the future, etc. If a job requiring special preparations is in the offing, the supervisor needs to know so he can prepare for it. If a job will require a great deal of overtime, he needs to know why it is important so that he can stimulate the best efforts of his employees.

the supervisor-employee contact

Each of these three major contacts has in turn four similar elements. For example, the supervisor-employee

contact includes these:

1. What does the supervisor expect from the employee?
2. What does the supervisor give to the employee?
3. What does the employee give to the supervisor?
4. What does the employee expect from the supervisor?

Let us suppose that the supervisor instructed the employee to take pictures of a rocket. In return he, of course, expects good pictures. The employee receives these instructions and provides "good" pictures. Yet the pictures provided are completely unsatisfactory for the intended purpose. Why? Was one end of the rocket much more important than the other, but since the supervisor did not say so, the end of lesser importance was photographed? Were the fins left off the rocket picture because they were lying to one side and the employee assumed they were not inportant to the photo? Were the pictures lacking in contrast as a way for the employee to emphasize his often repeated request for fresh photographic stock to replace the over-age stock he has?

Let us now examine the supervisor employee contact more closely. The supervisor expects the employee to provide performance. This implies being on the job—keeping his equipment in order—and doing his job well. To support this, the supervisor expects information from the employee as to how the job might be done better (better equipment, modified procedures, moves of people, etc.).

For instance, the employee may suggest that films taken during the morning could be brought in at noon instead of waiting until the end of the day, thus getting them into processing one-half day earlier; may suggest magazine load film of his camera, instead of having to unload and load film between each firing, thus accelerating the expensive field work.

From his viewpoint, the employee expects to provide performance and to voice his ideas as to how the job might be done better. The supervisor expects to receive and the employee expects to give essentially the same things, yet each needs to help the other clarify these expectations. The employee needs to help the supervisor to make his expectations known and understood through

discussion, asking questions, giving examples, etc. The supervisor needs to help the employee to give performance by recognizing achievements, showing that the employee's ideas are considered seriously and promptly, giving the employee proper credit, etc.

The supervisor expects to give the employee information about the job, to provide him with tools, to give him training, to give him information about policies and procedures. The employee, in turn, expects this assistance which is essential to his doing the job. He also expects information as to how well he is doing, his future prospects, and so on. Again, what the supervisor expects to give and what the employee expects to receive are basically the same, but again each needs to help the other. The employee can help the supervisor to get his material across by discussion, questions, and use of examples to show that he understands. The supervisor must help the employee to bring up his problems, by having time for questions when they are raised, by giving them careful consideration, and by taking action where it seems appropriate.

the supervisor—superior contact

The superior, too, expects performance from the supervisor. This includes effective use of personnel, equipment, and plant. It also includes asking for help when needed and taking part in planning for the future. Supporting this, the superior expects information analysis and recommendations about policies and procedures which affect performance. Since the superior's interests are more removed from the details of the job, the superior expects more emphasis on plans for the future—more emphasis on the long-range needs of the organization for personnel, equipment, and plant—an over-all picture rather than the details of any one particular job.

The supervisor, in turn, expects to give performance. He will do so to the extent that he understands what is required of him, and to the extend that a favorable atmosphere for such performance is maintained. As in the supervisor-employee relationship, the supervisor needs to help the superior make his expectations known; the superior needs to help the supervisor by recognizing his achievements, considering his ideas, etc. Where the supervisor's ideas meet with rebuff, he must try to deter-

mine why. Did he exceed the scope of his responsibility? Were his ideas unsound? Were they poorly presented? It may be that a thorough discussion with his superior is in order.

supervisor to supervisor contact

This link is generally as important to the supervisor as any. Poor job performance by a group under one supervisor may result in no performance by a group under another supervisor. If the instrument group underexposes film, and the processing group processes them as usual, then the data group may be unable to read the film at all. The whole organization has broken down. If, on the other hand, the supervisors had established good channels of communication, then the processing group might be able to compensate for the underexposure and so salvage the test results.

Joint planning by supervisors is another important factor. If one supervisor, for example, works out a new instrument that makes the field job faster, he has improved his operation. But if the data group has to spend twice as much time getting the results as they did formerly, then the net result is an overload on data analysis and loss of efficiency. For the good of the total job, new policies and procedures have to be considered jointly by all supervisors concerned.

In the field of personnel, supervisors can make real gains for their organization. It may be that personnel should be placed in other groups because of their interests; exchanges may be mutually profitable; training for rounding out other individuals may be necessary to provide future supervisors.

Also useful are exchange of information between supervisors regarding techniques used and discussion of their common problems.

Although there are similarities, each of these three relationships asks somewhat different things of the supervisor. Sometimes he finds it simpler to develop only one of the relationships actively, and gain most of his satisfaction from that relationship. Effective performance demands, however, that the supervisor become skilled in working in all three of these relationships.

◇◇

PUTTING PRINCIPLES INTO PRACTICE

Pete Hanley came out of the meeting room. It had been an interesting talk, he thought. Now he was beginning to wonder just how applicable some of the things Ted Merritt had said would be to his own situation. It had been a talk to the top foremen in Pete's division, and had stressed the importance of good human relations principles.

As a supervisor, Pete was determined to put into practice some of the points that Ted had mentioned. Funny, though, how when he asked Bob, his lead-man, "How are the wife and kids?" (here was a point Ted had stressed: be interested in your men) it just didn't seem to open Bob up the way Ted had implied it would. Also, there was that other morning when he knew that Jack Davis was troubled about something; when he said, "Say whatever's on your mind," Jack said, "Oh, it's nothing."

Pete was puzzled. Hadn't he done just what Ted had suggested—shown interest; invited free expression of feeling?

Pete didn't know that Bob and Jack heard more than he said. Bob heard him "say": "I don't really give a damn about you, but let's talk—I'm supposed to be interested in you." Similarly, Jack "heard": "It's OK to say what you think as long as it isn't critical of me;" and his reply (which Pete couldn't "hear") was, "I'm too smart to fall into your little trap—let someone else tell you the men resent your constantly rushing everything."

Ted hadn't said much about this. Evidently, we can say the "right" words and convey other ideas we don't particularly want to. Nor had Ted explained why this was so. An understanding of this basic, every-day occurence involves an understanding of what makes us "tick" as people.

We all have idealized images of ourselves which it

is important for us to maintain; as long as we do, we feel comfortable. At the same time, however, we all have impulses or instincts—of which we are unaware—constantly stirring within us. These impulses are frequently "unacceptable" to us, as they do not fit in with our idealized self-concepts. As these impulses come closer to our awareness—perhaps because of a situation in which we find ourselves, or because of what others say or do—we become uneasy, tense, uncomfortable. In order to lessen these uncomfortable feelings, we make use of protective devices—the so-called defense mechanisms or defenses. It is important to emphasize that we *all* use defenses. One of the most important factors that makes us different from one another is the kinds of defenses we characteristically employ.

Now it is these very defenses which caused Pete's difficulties. Neither Pete nor anyone else can remain comfortable or healthy without using defenses; yet their presence distorts the communications transmitted to others and received from them. This, in turn, results in difficulties in getting along with other people.

Pete, like every supervisor, is a key figure who has to see that management's objectives are accomplished by working effectively with and through his subordinates. He must help establish and maintain an atmosphere in the work team which keeps morale and productivity high. He is subject to the same forces—both inside and outside the plant—as are his men: he must please his boss, assure himself that he is capable, maintain the respect of his men, demonstrate to his wife his competency, awe his children, impress his friends. He, too, must put in a day's work in spite of being worried about trouble at home, financial problems, and so on. Not only do his own problems and defenses interfere with his relating as effectively as he might to his men, but to whatever extent he doesn't understand (or misunderstands) these factors in them, his effectiveness is likewise diminished.

making the tools work

It is now easier to understand why Pete found Ted Merritt's generalities about "human relations" didn't work: he had used them as a "gimmick", without having developed understanding or insight about Bob or Jack—

or, perhaps even more importantly, about himself. As we see how complex these situations are, we see why there are no sets of rules which always work.

A supervisory training program, to be truly effective, cannot stop with generalized, factual information. Information is useful and pertinent; trainees profit greatly from increased knowledge about individual differences, group dynamics, communication, leadership, and so on. This, however, is only part of the picture. It is easy to "talk the language", but it is not easy to put the principles into practice.

How, then, can this gap be bridged? How can the supervisor get a clearer picture of what he is like, how he affects those around him, how effectively and appropriately he uses his particular defenses—and to what extent they distort his perceptions, both of himself and of others? How, too—when he begins to *understand* better—can he now increase his *skills?* How can he learn to deal more effectively with conflicts and tensions; with hostile, negative feelings (not allowing his men to tell him about these feelings certainly doesn't eliminate or diminish them). How can he learn to interview more effectively; to discipline; to communicate; to listen (and to hear and to "hear")?

If we agree that these are essential aims, it is likely that Pete—and all the Petes—will have to have experience in a participative group process. Whether there is general group discussion, buzz-grouping, role-playing, case-study, presentation of theory, film forum, or any other type of activity taking place in such a training group, Pete will be involved as an actual group member.

permissive and unstructured

The participative aspect of the process is particularly increased by two factors. One is the establishment of a "permissive" atmosphere—one in which the participants feel free to express themselves, and in which all channels of communication are kept open as widely as possible. The other is the utilization of training sessions that are partly "unstructured"; that is, where the trainees themselves have the opportunity to decide what they want to talk about, what kinds of problems they want to deal with, and how they want to go about it.

Thus, the trainees may focus on such topics as establishing better working relationships, building better work teams, conducting meetings more effectively, taking account of the personal needs of subordinates, dealing with "difficult"people, etc. As they do, however, they begin to act in characteristic ways—some participate freely, others are silent; some tend to dominate, others are passive; some become resentful about what is happening, others like it. All of these, and other, reactions become "grist for the mill".

The training situation itself begins to arouse the same kinds of uncomfortable feelings as were mentioned earlier, and each trainee uses his characteristic defense mechanisms. With the help of the trainer, the group at times turns its attention to these problems: it discusses and analyzes the meaning and significance (though not to the deeper levels as in therapeutic groups) of the behavior of its various members, of their interpersonal feelings, of the barriers to communication which arise, and of the various forces which determine the group's operation. The relevance of these to the on-the-job situation is constantly stressed. The trainee is constantly able to test out ***in the training situation*** the very human relations principles and skills he is discussing.

No attempt is made, in this process, to tell trainees whether to change themselves or how to change. They are helped to see the whole dynamic relationship between themselves and those around them more objectively. If, then, they are dissatisfied with any aspects of their behavior, or if they feel that certain of their modes of behavior interfere with their most effective functioning in the work setting, the decision to change—and the direction—is up to them.

There is no expectation that the supervisor should become an amateur psychiatrist; it is unimportant, essentially, for him to be able to identify by name a defense mechanism his subordinate uses. What *is* important is that he become aware of the fact that people do defend themselves when they feel uncomfortable, as he does himself. Then, perhaps, he will learn better to appreciate human differences; to be more understanding and tolerant of the behavior that he sees—behavior which, without this awareness, may appear to be illogical or incomprehensible. ◇◇

TRAINING FOR SUPERVISORY DEVELOPMENT

At the fourth session of a seminar series for supervisors, one of the participants stated that he was concerned about what his attendance at the sessions was adding up to. He thought maybe his boss should be there rather than he, since his boss was not very helpful as a supervisor. He also had doubts about how his boss viewed his attending. "He has never said anything to me about my coming, never asks me what I'm learning in these sessions, never shows any concern one way or the other. In a way I'm glad, because I don't know what I would tell him if he did inquire. I don't know whether I should be here or not."

Why is the participant concerned about his supervisor's attitude toward his taking training? Is this important? What can be done about it?

getting training accepted

The supervisor's concern seems to stem from the fact that the supervisory process takes place within a network of relationships with the consequence that whatever

is done by one person in the network influences—and is influenced by—each of the others in the network. But why should this make him uneasy? The answer seems to lie in the fact that one aspect of the relationship in the work situation is that of *power*. The position which the superior holds in the organization permits him to fire, to promote, to give interesting assignments, etc. Realizing this, the subordinate becomes concerned about—and responsive to—the attitude of his superior toward him.

When he attends development courses he needs to know whether the superior approves of his attending, whether the things he is learning are compatible with his superior's point of view or ways of approaching a situation, and whether it is intended by his boss that he should attempt to try out new or different ways of solving problems.

What can a training staff do to help the supervisor, the superior, and the organization work in harmony? The following are suggested by the experience which we have had during the past four years of experimentation with various approaches.

line and staff together

In establishing policy and undertaking specific supervisory development projects, the training staff can work in conjunction with an Employee Development Committee of high ranking line officials appointed by top management. If a specific development project is announced by such a committee (each of our programs is 'kicked off" by the chairman of our Employee Development Committee), the question of the sanction of the project is less of a problem to the participants than if it is presented as a project of a staff group. The project is more likely to be viewed as a part of the job, as something important to "getting out production".

Furthermore, the project is more likely to be germain to the supervisor's own production. Use of the committee provides a blending of the thinking of staff specialists and of line administrators, each of which makes unique contributions to the plans for the training. Our experience has been that even when we thought we had done a thorough job of studying the needs of the organization and of thinking through how the needs

could be met through training, the committee raised points which led to a re-thinking of the project and substantial modification of the approach. Thus the use of a committee has had the dual value of sanctioning projects which have been undertaken and of "reality-testing" the training approach which was suggested by the staff.

making training fit

Specific training projects can best be planned from the standpoint of the needs and experiences of the whole organization. We tend to think of an organization in terms of a jig-saw puzzle. With a puzzle, if you wish to modify it in certain respects, you can pull appropriate pieces from the picture, change them, then return them to the picture. But then you find complications, since the changed parts may not fit into the space from which they were taken. The kind of training which is appropriate for one part of an organization will depend upon what has been, or is to be, provided for adjacent echelons.

We have found that a course in conference leadership for the top echelon has been an effective place to start. It is practical training and it also involves so many aspects of the human relations involved in supervision or management that it provides an entry to other more specific kinds of training. Futhermore, it provides a type of training which administrators are able to use in participating as staff members in programs for other supervisors in the organization.

the boss has responsibility

We have found it useful to obtain the help of the supervisors of the participants in selecting those who are to attend, in determining the content of goals of the project, and in evaluating its effectiveness.

In planning one workshop attendance was determined as follows: The general purposes of the project, the echelon of supervisors for whom it was intended, a general statement of the training design, and the dates during which it was to be held were sent to organizational units in a memo from the Chairman of the Employee Development Committee. Each organizational group was asked to study the proposal and to send to the training staff the names of those the unit wished to have

take part in the program. Only those referred in this way attended. That this system accomplished the purpose we had in mind is suggested by the fact that on a questionnaire which each person filled out as he registered, only 10 per cent of them checked that they did not know how their supervisor felt about their attending. All of them stated on the questionnaire that they were glad of the chance to attend and that they expected to gain from the experience.

Superiors were also asked to state, for each person selected to attend, the kinds of problems with which the person had difficulty on the job. A consolidation of these problems provided part of the basis on which the specific content of the program was subsequently determined.

One consequence of this procedure was shown in a follow-up evaluation study. The responses of the supervisors of the trainees indicated that they were interested in the progress of the participants and that they had been conscious of the behavior of the participants during and after the training. With one or two exceptions, they were much in sympathy with the holding of such training workshops.

Other consequences of the involvement of higher echelons in the program were requests by the superiors that they themselves be given the opportunity to participate in a workshop, and that the workshop be repeated so they could send additional employees.

It appears that involvement of superiors in the training of subordinates in a real sense commits them to the task of helping the participants make use of the training. The expense of training is substantial, and sponsoring an employee's attendance obligates the supervisor to "get a return" from the investment.

getting learning applied

Problems involved in modifying job behavior—"back-home application" of training—can be included as part of the training course. In the last days of a workshop held for supervisors, one general session commenced with a skit which showed the experience of a supervisor who had attended a training workshop and who wanted to involve his work group in making decisions. His problem was to decide which of the two

secretaries in the office should be asigned a new electrical typewriter which the unit was getting, and he brought the question up at a staff meeting. In the ten minutes which the skit lasted this supervisor (one of the staff) encountered a number of problems in trying to get across to his crew what he was trying to do, and why.

The skit had firsthand meaning to the workshop participants. A lecture was then given which attempted to explain resistance to change and some ways of reducing such resistance. After discussion of the meaning of the lecture, a sub-group was selected to plan how they would now handle the original problem. They demonstrated their approach, and this was again followed by discussion. The session illustrated to each participant that he was not alone in having problems of applying learning, and it helped them to understand why such problems arise.

a human relations workshop

Recent research indicates rather clearly that effective leadership requires a high degree of sensitivity to social situations (to be aware of what is going on) and ability to deal effectively with the situation in the light of such awareness. It implies that the effective leader is able to understand himself and his impact upon others, to grasp how others "see" a given problem or situation and what it means to them, and then to react to others in ways that incorporate these insights.

But how can leaders be helped to increase their ability to understand and deal appropriately with other people? How can various kinds of information, methods, and techniques be integrated into an insightful experience for the participants?

Let us describe what we did in the workshop for first-line supervisors mentioned above, what happened as a result, and tell why we did what we did.

Careful programming resulted in the following plans:

The workshop was designed to run eight hours per day for a full week, recess for about two months, then be followed by a three-day session. Meetings were held in a recreational area of the organization, away from from telephones, with a snack bar available for coffee

to be served during breaks.

The meeting was opened, its purposes announced, and its place in the supervisory development program of the organization described by the Chairman of the Employee Development Committee. He then described the plan for the week's activities, including the purpose of the small-group discussions. A film showing the problem of a supervisor ("The Inner Man Steps Out") was shown, then participants went to small groups in which specific cases were analyzed. In the afternoon the procedure followed on most half-days thereafter was begun: a meeting of all the participants during which information was presented on subjects relevant to the goals of the workshop, followed by a break, then two-hour meetings of the small groups.

Higher level supervisors and members of the Employee Development Committee gave most of the lectures. Their topics included information concerning the organization's purpose, structure, policies, procedures, and information concerning supervision processes and human relations.

The final half-day of the first week was spent in a general session at which the group discussed what they had learned during the week, decided what should be done next, and filled out evaluation questionnaires. As a result of this meeting, the original plan for the follow-up session was modified and the time allotted was distributed among three one-day sessions held at monthly intervals.

What was the outcome of this workshop? The staff's impressions can be summarized by a comment made at the end of the first week: "I feel like we have just been through a hard-fought football game—and won!" Enthusiasm of both staff and participants reached a very high point in the middle of the third day and continued high through the rest of the first week. The over-all rating given the experience at the end of the first week was 4.4 on a five-point scale.

some "whys" of training

Why did we conduct the training as we did? Our previous experiences and our understanding of the literature on the subject led us to make the following assump-

tions concerning adult learning which we tried to incorporate into a plan of action.

We assumed that learning is most likely to occur if:

• *the training time is concentrated into a limited period,* thus making a cumulative impact upon the participants, while still allowing for a period of integration of the experience into on-the-job activity before the final sessions of the training. It was because of this assumption that we met consecutively for one week, provided a lapse of two months, then met for one-day sessions at monthly intervals.

• *the atmosphere developed in the training session is informal, flexible, and relaxed.* We achieved this by using first names (without designation of work units or titles on name cards), creating audience participation instead of straight lectures in general sessions, circular seating, etc.

• *supervisors have the opportunity to learn from their own experiences.* Learning from experience is facilitated when the training situation provides challenges to previous ways of viewing experience and when it stimulates analysis of such views. The small groups were designed for this purpose. These groups were formed of participants with as divergent backgrounds as the total population in the workshop made possible. Groups had no agenda except as they created one. The main responsibility of the leader-trainer was to coordinate the discussion, to suggest approaches and methods that offered potential learning value, and to encourage the group to analyze its own experience as a group. Most of the groups spent most of their time analyzing specific problems that members faced on the job, such as, "How can I get my supervisor to make decisions on questions which I must have answered?"

• *information which is presented relates to the problems under discussion and the experiences the trainees are having.* Presentation of information in general sessions through short lectures, skits, demonstrations, etc., attempted to meet this requirement which we set for ourselves.

In the evaluation, each person was asked to state "What phases or parts of the workshop contributed most and which parts contributed least to your learning?"

The responses were as follows:

	PEOPLE MENTIONING IT	
	As most helpful % of total	*As least helpful % of total*
Small group discussion in mixed groups	94	0
Atmosphere of the Workshop	54	0
Some of the Lectures	86	22
Meeting with top Management	44	27
Films	25	16

The lectures found most helpful were the three that dealt with the dynamics of individual and group behavior and with the role of the supervisor.

The question of gearing content information, especially that concerning the dynamics of human behavior, into other parts of the training schedule has proved to be a tricky one. Effective handling of this problem is made easier when the person presenting the information:

- is sufficiently conversant with his subject (dynamics of individual and of group behavior, of the conference process, perception, communication, etc.) to be able to adapt his material to the experiences the trainees are having in the workshop at the time the information is presented.
- is also a leader in a small group so that he has an "ear" to the immediate experiences and can pick up clues as to when information is needed and what is needed.
- has the skill to present complex ideas in terms that are understandable and useful to the trainees.
- uses dramatic devices—skits ,brief films, dialogues, to facilitate communication of such information.

Our experience suggests that a workshop based upon these assumptions has considerable usefulness in developing supervisors within an industrial organization. We believe the same principles and a simple approach would be applicable in other settings. ◇◇

STRESSES IN CONSULTATION

Consider the relationship between wife and mother-in-law. Quite independent of the personalities of the two women involved, in our society this relationship is virtually always an uncomfortable one. The major stress arises because these women have greatly conflicting claims on one man who is meaningful to each of them. The good intentions or personality "improvement" of the women can never remove the stress; they can only minimize it.

And so it is in the consultant role, where the stresses are inherent in the nature of consultation.

I should like to point out a few of these stresses which exist in the socially defined consultant-client relationship, and then on the basis of these stresses indicate some of the things that you as consultants and clients can do to minimize their effects.

who is expert?

One stress is the basic conflict between the consultant and his client regarding who *really* is the most expert in the matter at hand. The consultant has spent years of concentrated study in his specialized field. Who should know more about problems in this field than he?—certainly not a layman who has not made the same investment. If the consultant were not an expert, he would not have been engaged by the client in the first place.

And yet, the aid which a consultant can render is

limited by the very fact of his specialization. His specialized point of view is, by definition, partial and incomplete in contrast to the point of view of the executive (client) who must view problems from the standpoint of the organization as a whole.

The consultant is also limited by the fact that his specialized knowledge, more than likely, pertains to the *class* of problems rather than to the particular problem which is being experienced by the client. The consultant can cite general principles which hold in a majority of cases, but this is not likely to impress a client who wants to know what to do in his own immediate and unique situation. From the standpoint of the client, the consultant's orientation is "too theoretical" in contrast to his own "practical" orientation.

But it is precisely the consultant's ability to abstract similarities from a variety of unique situations and to see the underlying principles, that makes him useful to the client. This is the basis of his expertness.

In short, two different breeds of men compose the consultant-client relationship—the consultant is a man of knowledge; the client is a man of action. They complement each other, but they cannot supplant one another.

The question of whether the consultant or client is more expert is aggravated when the consultant is a social scientist. There are a number of reasons why this is so, but perhaps the principal reason is the tendency for virtually everyone to believe that the social scientist has an unusual ability to understand his fellow human beings. I suppose this tendency is most pronounced in the kind of people with whom social scientists consult—members of social action groups, and the supervisory and executive personnel of organizations.

Conflict between expert and layman is frequently most obvious at the time of the first meeting when the client describes his problem to the consultant. The client usually assumes that he has the right and even the obligation to delimit the problem area and to define the service which he has hired the consultant to furnish. At the same time, the consultant is inclined to feel that the problem must be re-defined in a way that he, as the expert, knows will be most amenable to treatment. Moreover, the consultant recognizes a responsibility to point out

to his client ramifications of the problem which the client may have overlooked. Only by caution and understanding on the part of both consultant and client at this point in their relationship can a potentially damaging conflict be minimized.

Even before the first meeting, the stress of the expert-layman conflict begins to be felt within the client organization. The fact that a consultant has been invited to work with a group carries the implication that resources to solve the group's problem are not available among its members. To staff members of an organization, the invitation is an implied criticism of their own competence.

Especially threatened by this implication is any specialist *within* the organization in whose jurisdiction the problem for consultation resides. The one member of the organization with whom the consultant will have the most in common is often the person with whom he finds it most difficult to establish cordial relations. Paradoxically, the skill with which a consultant provides help can aggravate the threat implied by his presence. A highly effective consultant confirms unmistakably the fact that the group needed help which its own members could not provide.

threat of an "outsider"

Another stress in the consultant role relates to the fundamental division between "outsiders" and "insiders". The consultant is an outsider who suddenly appears in the midst of the delicately balanced and intricate system of human relationships, and proceeds to give the insiders advice concerning their own affairs. The consequence is resentment. It exists whether it is a matter of Northerner discussing race relations in the South, or an acquaintance suggesting to parents how they should bring up their child. In the consultation relationship, the resentment tends to be hidden because the client's "better sense" instructs him that such feelings are inadmissable.

In many ways the stresses arising from the division between outsiders and insiders are similar to those arising from the layman-expert conflict. They certainly intermingle and confound one another. But the outsider-insider division creates one peculiar difficulty for the consultant which is of unusual interest.

The outsider has no clearly defined status within the organization. If the consultant participates at the heart of the organization—that is, in its policy-making councils—his appearance creates a serious disturbance.

Staff members ask, "How do you treat the consultant? What authority does he have? Is he supported by the powers-that-be? How seriously are we expected to take his advice? How does he fit in?"

When such questions are unanswered, staff members are made uneasy, for a wrong guess on their part can have unfortunate consequences for them. Their uncertainty may be expressed by a lack of spontaneity in discussions, or as an over-sensitivity on the part of subordinates to the opinions of their superiors.

differing expectations

One further stress in the consultant role is, curiously enough, a consequence of the growing appreciation among consultants and clients of the social-psychological factors at work when humans meet together in face-to-face relations. In recent years we have become more aware of certain group resistances associated with authoritative ways of giving advice. A number of consultants and client groups have come to expect that the aid they give or receive will be cast in the form of "helping the client to help himself". In effect, the consultants' expertness has shifted to a procedural base.

Stress arises when expectations of consultants and clients conflict concerning the style of consultation. If members of a client group expect to get help in the form of expert information and advice, a consultant who attempts to make them rely on their own resources is apt to be disappointing or worse. Similarly, when clients anticipate aid in learning to help themselves, but are confronted by a specialist whose expertness lies elsewhere, the relationship is bound to be unsatisfactory.

A recent study conducted at the University of Chicago supports these observations. Consultants from state departments of education in the Midwest, and a number of school administrators who had been their clients, were asked to evaluate their previous consultation. They were also asked to indicate the appropriateness of three styles of consultation: the consultant acting as an "expert", as

a "resource person", or as a "process person". The amount of *agreement* between consultant and client regarding the appropriate style was found to coincide with the value of the consultation. If they were in disagreement, the consultation was correspondingly less successful.

lessening the stresses

To what does our analysis of the stresses in the consultant role lead? It is true that the basic difficulties of consultation are virtually "built in" and cannot be removed without destroying the relationship. Nevertheless, the consultant can lessen the effects of these difficulties in the following ways:

1. The consultant should recognize that he and his client each have unique contributions they can make to policy formulation, and he should maintain a regard for the limitations of his own contribution. Such a state of mind can go far toward keeping the consultant's contributions disciplined and helpful.

2. Before he begins on the consultation proper, the consultant should explore with his client the following aspects of the prospective relationship:

   (a) those motives of the client in seeking expert counsel which may not be explicitly stated by the client;

   (b) the client's definition of his problem and the differences which may exist between his definition and that of the consultant;

   (c) the expectations of the client with respect to the style of consultation which he considers most appropriate.

   On the basis of these kinds of insights, the consultant has real tools for minimizing the conflicts which are likely to arise in the course of consultation.

3. The consultant should clarify with the client group precisely where he, as an outsider, stands in relation to the group.

4. The consultant should not be antagonized or disappointed by any resentment, or lack of cordiality in the relationship. He may find it beneficial to encourage the group to express its feelings openly, since the very "hidden-ness" of hostile feeling may reduce group productivity. ◇ ◇

HELPING THE CLIENT HELP YOU

(WHEN YOU'RE A CONSULTANT)

Although people in the counseling profession agree about the importance of establishing a good relationship with a client in the first contact, it is not always so clear just what this involves. The meanings of "good relations" are varied—ranging from liking, feeling-at-ease-with, trusting, etc. The techniques used to establish this necessary but ambiguous something are equally elusive. I would like, therefore, to concentrate on a particular meaning for "good relations", and to suggest techniques that might help in achieving them.

First let's focus on what determines a client's *commitment* to a consultant. Commitment is defined as the desire or willingness to entrust one's self and one's problem to the helper. This commitment has two aspects: (a) a client's *willingness to maintain a relationship* with the consultant—to want to continue seeing him for a sufficient period of time; and (b) a client's *willingness to change and to be influenced* in some way by this relationship, or to seriously consider any ideas and suggestions produced by the consultant.

Suppose, then, that we operate from the following premises: (a) a successful relationship is established between a client and a consultant if the initial phases of their relationship result in the client's making a commitment to the consultant; (b) this commitment has two phases: willingness to maintain contact and willingness to be in-

fluenced; (c) whether these commitments occur or not depends upon the actual experiences with the consultant which result in the client's judgment that the consultant is or is not able and willing to help him.

let's first understand each other

In order to judge a consultant as helpful, a client must feel that what he says is understood by the consultant, and that what the consultant says is understandable.

A consultant should do the following:

(a) assign importance to the client's problem; (A consultant who minimizes the importance of a client's problem is off to a bad or impossible start.)

(b) indicate desire to maintain communication; (This is accomplished by attentive listening, remembering what the client has said, and showing continued interest in the client and his problem. If a consultant seems to welcome distractions, if he shows signs of wanting to terminate communication by rushing, fidgeting, and the like, the client will naturally judge that the consultant is not really interested in helping him.)

(c) show willingness to admit more areas of communication between himself and the client. (A consultant who shows a reluctance to answer questions about himself, or who abruptly and impatiently refocuses a client's digression, can scarcely hope to gain a client's confidence or receive the kind of cooperation necessary from him.)

It has been pointed out that a consultant who is to be perceived as helpful must assign importance to the client's problem in the first place and thus bring it into the area of communication, and that he must be seen by the client as understanding the client's communications, and that he must make his own communications understandable. This process alone often results in a client's achieving more understanding of the problem and thus experiencing a feeling of progress. In addition, clarification of his own role by the consultant often produces a feeling of clarification in the problem area by the client. Further than this, when a client experiences difficulty in making a decision, a consultant can aid in clarifying the situation and help in the process of making the decision.

Practically all people will state that they seek help from a consultant because they have a problem. Few people will state that they go to a professional person for help because they want to enjoy a social experience with him. Nevertheless, actual experiences with the consultants do, and quite rapidly, involve the issue of social gratifications as well. Thus, people express satisfactions and dissatisfactions with a consultant not only in terms of the progress they experienced with their problem but also in terms of the personal relationship between them. Thus, the consultant is a: nice person, friendly, cold, etc.

What the consultant does to please a client on this level of their relationship consists mostly of observing social amenities established in the culture. Greeting a person warmly, smiling, referring to a person by name, minimizing embarrassment, and showing signs of interest in a person and his problem do produce social satisfactions when such behavior seems to express sincere liking and concern. In addition, a consultant who provides the expected social amenities tends to be seen as willing to help. Too often, professional helpers, in their zeal to be regarded as competent and expert, fail to show the expected amount of cordiality, with the result that clients do not feel at ease with them, and do not feel they are really interested in being helpful.

behind the call for help

When we face a task which calls for extensive knowledge and highly developed skills, we consider it a reasonable and intelligent action to seek the aid of an expert consultant. American industry has been able to develop its high productivity by making application of accumulated scientific knowledge and skill to the performance of a particular task. In like manner, it has been routine procedure to call on highly trained specialists in dealing with many of the problems of our nation. Therefore, the client is simply being a typical member of our society when, in facing any complex problem, he reacts by seeking the aid of an expert.

However, alongside such good and sufficient reasons for seeking help, there exist other needs which interfere with the client's full use of the consultation. In some instances the client is not so intent on seeking a correct

solution to a problem as he is on justifying some solution that he prefers. When the client has set his heart on taking a particular action, and the consultant's facts or advice discourage this plan, his first impulse may be to try to discredit the consultant's information rather than to give up the design to which he is emotionally committed.

The consultant, if he does not realize that his client is fighting himself, may be drawn into an unnecessary argument. This is a common thing in vocational counseling where the client seeks the consultant's help in checking the accuracy of his own judgments. It is not rare to find a client who is predisposed toward certain choices by his dreams and his identifications. He does not accept facts with an open mind and this, in turn, causes him to look for bias in the consultant.

A consultant will find that some clients have all the resources they need for solving the problem, yet seek his services. In some instances the demand for certain types of specialists assumes the proportions of a fad. An executive wants this kind of specialist as a sign of his wide-awake progressivism and nothing more. In other cases the search for consultation, despite adequate resources, reflects an effort to avoid responsibility for the final action. If the client can induce the consultant to move beyond his sphere, the client may be able to shift the blame for any failures of his enterprise.

The personal needs of a client not only influence his act of seeking counsel, but also affect his reactions to the specialist. Most people, no matter how mature, retain feelings associated with the helplessness of infancy. To some degree the reliance on an expert can be perceived as an admission of inadequacy. Without being aware of his purpose, a person may maneuver the consultant into giving counsel on subjects in which he himself is as well or better informed. He must demonstrate to himself that he is as good a man as this expert. The more highly competitive the organization the greater the likelihood that the consultant will encounter this factor in the reactions of its members.

There are other needs. There is, for instance, a great deal of security in knowing that we do not have to stand alone and that powerful people will support rather than

fight us. The client often expresses this need by seeking information as a way of ingratiating himself. By seeking information in a manner which expresses his respect for the other, he invites the consultant to do something for him, for which he can be duly grateful and appreciative.

In meeting each client's request for information the consultant must be sensitive to the many needs, personal as well as realistic, which lie behind this request, and adapt himself to them. In this sense, even consultation about the most matter-of-fact questions has its human-relations side and should be viewed in this light. In any decision there are two sets of factors to be considered. On the one hand, there are those associated with the technical aspects of carrying out whatever action is taken, or of anticipating the outcomes of alternative actions. On the other hand are the personal factors, e.g., the degree of risk the client is willing to take, the kinds of relationships with other people which may develop as a result of his chosen course of action.

Except in the special case of the psychological consultant, the function of the counselor is mainly to contribute on the technical side. He will be intruding upon the personal side of the decision if he includes expressions of his own values or motivations. He does this, for example, when he accompanies an estimate of the probabilities of the success or failure of a particular action with the expression that, "This is not too great a risk to run." Without intending to, he may play into the hands of a client who seeks to avoid responsibility for his own actions.

This kind of intrusion of his own personality may also interfere with his effectiveness where his client is defensive about his own independence. Better results may be expected when the consultant gives his information or prediction in a form which conveys its limitations as well as its contribution. In this way he avoids either trying to build himself up into an unrealistically powerful figure who stimulates dependency, or as a rival whom the client must defeat in order to keep from feeling that he is becoming a completely insignificant and helpless person.

When the consultant sees that his client is emotionally committed to a course of action which he, the con-

sultant, knows will not lead to the goal, the timing of his communications is very important. This is not the simple case of problem-solving where the only goal is to find the right answer. Here there are two goals: one is to find the right answer; the other is to take a particular action. It is important to allow the client time to struggle with the conflicting attractions when he begins to perceive that his two goals are incompatible. The "news" must be broken slowly so that there is time for him to decide to give up voluntarily the action which he would have preferred to take. Hasty and unfeeling pressure applied in the form of too-many factual arguments may force him into an impulsive decision against his own interests.

Most important of all is the attention the consultant must give to using the client's own resources for the solution of the problem. The consultant is making his maximum contribution only at that point where the client's own information and resources end. Under these circumstances the client can be most sure that he has put into his own enterprise as much as he is capable, and thereby can avoid the feeling of having been deprived of some of the satisfactions of accomplishment.

the consultant, too, has needs

Finally, consider the needs of the consultant. To be helpful he must be able to allow for the personal needs that are usually created in him by the situation.

Since the consultant knows that he is expected to contribute something that his client lacks, he is likely to feel considerable obligation to be of value. This will be true whether he is being financially reimbursed or is receiving only "psychic return". Anxiety about demonstrating his value can stimulate him to rush forward prematurely with information or suggestions. His major concern becomes that of impressing his client rather than serving him.

Similarly, consultants are as likely as other persons to want admiration and friendship. This can give rise to a reluctance to call his client's attention to unpleasant facts. The consultant's aid cannot always take the supportive form of assisting the client to achieve some desired objective. Sometimes it must take the less popular but equally necessary shape of bringing the client face

to face with limitations in himself or the situation which make desirable an abandonment of some highly attractive goal.

what it all adds up to

And now to return to the question of establishing a relationship between a client and a consultant. What does a client experience in his first contact that results in his making a commitment?

By way of summary, let me suggest the following sequence of experiences:

1. The consultant does certain things—smiles, clarifies his role, helps to state problems of decision-making, meets expectations regarding social amenities, etc.

2. Some of these acts produce satisfactions in the client which can be classified as satisfactions about the problem (feeling better because of seeing the problem more clearly) or about the social relationship (feeling good because his name was remembered).

3. These satisfactions, or dissatisfactions, result in the client's making certain judgments about the consultant and the consultation experience, such as: "He is interested in me and my problem. He is a likeable person. I felt he understood me, and I understood him. There was progress made toward the solution of the problem."

4. These judgments relate to judgments about the consultant's motivations and the *consultant's commitment to the client.* The commitments and motivations of a consultant can also be categorized as centering around the problem or around the social-relations. Thus, a judgment that a consultant is a likeable person is related to a judgment that the consultant is willing to see the client some more, and a judgment that a consultant helped clarify the problem is related to the judgment that he is motivated to be thorough.

5. The client, finally, *is willing to make the kind of commitment to the consultant that the client feels the consultant makes to him.* If the client feels the consultant has committed himself to see the client more, the client tends to be willing to see the consultant more; and, if the consultant is judged to be motivated to be thorough, the client tends to commit himself to take the consultant's ideas seriously. ◇◇

HELPING THE CONSULTANT HELP YOU

(WHEN YOU'RE A CLIENT)

As we plan for guidance from those who can help us most effectively in any given situation, it becomes apparent that much of the usefulness of consultation depends upon us. The decision as to what kind, when, under what circumstances, and to what degree is ours. Once we have decided upon the abilities and skills needed, we begin a search for the right person. It may be somebody we already know, someone recommended by friends; it could be a well-known name in a book.

The next important step will be the preparation of the consultant. This takes time and effort, but so does any worth-while project. If it isn't important why would we ask for help at all? Good results can be expected if we give adequate consideration to the following points:

1. In the first contact, let's outline what we hope to accomplish through our program, meeting, or conference. Let's also outline ways in which it appears it can be accomplished successfully. Since we are willing to invite a consultant into our lives, we should be willing to share our thoughts and ideas so he may understand our needs.

2. Let's tell him specifically what we want him to do, and how we see his part in relation to the whole. It is not his right to second-guess us on what we want and need.

3. We will want him to know the problems we antici-

pate, the opinions that are present, the different expectations that exist, and the pressures that may occur. These are not unusual and won't scare the consultant. It will increase his desire to work more effectively.

4. Let's give him the opportunity to decide whether he can handle the job we've outlined. None of us would quarrel with the statement that a consultant should know his own strengths and limitations. He should have a chance to analyze these abilities in terms of the job to be done. He might write that he isn't the person for us. Some pressures within his own organization may make it impossible for him to function properly. Or he may not have the skills we require. We should be pleased with his honesty. It may save us from an afternoon of boredom or complete disaster.

5. When the consultant accepts, we'll keep him fully informed of developments and encourage him to raise questions in areas where he sees some inconsistencies.

6. Let's keep in mind the job he is to do. Often in our kindness to show him the City or provide opportunities to become acquainted and be known, social functions seem to take precedence over all else. We do not underestimate their value, but is this the reason we asked the consultant to come? We have observed that a consultant like other human beings is apt to tire. At the crucial time he may lack the physical stamina to do the job well.

7. Enough time should be saved between the consultant's arrival and the job ahead to bring him up to date on last minute developments. He needs a clear understanding of the entire session, his role in it, and plans which have been made as groundwork for his participation.

Before going into the last step, we cannot ignore any longer all those people who are thinking: "This is all very well when we have a choice, but what about those other occasions?" We say that consultation is voluntary, but is it? What about those visits from a member of our own hierarchy who drops in "to see how you are getting along"? Or, someone higher in the administrative set-up decides we need some help and "suggests" we have a certain person in? Or, some well-known person is coming to town and, "Wouldn't you like to use this oppor-

tunity to get some help from him?"

Yes, these are difficult times, both for us and the consultant. When we initiate the request, we usually bring a readiness to learn, a frank appraisal of what we see as our problems, an independence of thought and a sincerity of purpose which result in constructive action.

When we haven't asked for help, it's a different matter altogether. We may think we are doing all right and don't need any help. We may become suspicious that someone is forcing help on us because we aren't measuring up. We may become defensive and begin to justify our mistakes, even though we would not do it in another situation. It may be inconvenient, at a time when we have six "important" things to do. In any event, it is easy for us (and may seem more desirable from our administrative point of view) to project our feelings and blame the consultant.

We may have good reason for resisting consultation at this time. However, we must finally face the question: "How skillful are we in being objective about why we are here and what are our aims?" Perhaps this person has much to offer our program, no matter who suggested the idea. He may be a man of great experience who can add immeasurably to our knowledge. Programs with which he is acquainted in other areas may yield ideas on which we can build.

Let's quickly clear the air and let him know we didn't ask for him. That easily explains why we can't be more specific in our requests for help. Chances are he was in the same position himself a week or a month ago and can easily understand our feelings. From there, we might begin to discuss our interests and experiences, and invite him to do the same. By so doing we begin to see ways in which he might be helpful. Thus, in an atmosphere comfortable for both of us, we can explore together what might be accomplished through his visit.

how did it go?

In either the voluntary or "not so voluntary" type of relationship, the final step is looking at the process and trying to appraise the values and the areas of confusion. In some instances this may be the beginning of further guidance as development is made. If this is the

plan, arrangements will be made for follow-through in keeping the consultant fully informed. In other instances sufficient help will have been secured to allow us to carry through alone, using our new-found knowledge and skill as other problems arise. Perhaps the consultant has become so involved and interested he will want to know what is happening to us. We may want to let him know, recognizing, however, that we move forward through our own strength whenever possible. Whether there is follow-through or not, every good consultation trip ends with a frank and honest appraisal of what has taken place. The consultant tells us of his observations and points up ways improvements might be initiated. In turn we help him understand the ways he worked which were of most assistance to us, and explore with him things he might do in the future to be more constructive in his consultation.

Sometimes it is difficult to know which is the consultant and which is the consultee. It is difficult to know, but is it important? All that is important is for both to recognize that consultation is a two-way process through which both can gain. If we are sound in our planning, objective in defining our goals, careful in determining the skills and abilities needed, wise in selecting the person, thorough in the briefing, and incisive in analyzing the help given, growth takes place in all concerned. As a result, our goal of effective service becomes more realistic because we are stronger individuals better able to meet our problems as they arise.

◇ ◇

ADULT EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE U.S.A.

1225 NINETEENTH STREET, NORTHWEST
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20036

BOOKS

THE HANDBOOK OF ADULT EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

An authoritative working tool and standard reference for anyone concerned with adult education. Published by the Adult Education Association of the U. S. A. Edited by Malcolm S. Knowles, 656 pages.
Price: $7.50 per copy. 1960.

AN OVERVIEW OF ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH

The first concise, up-to-date, factual report regarding the adult education field. Published by the Adult Education Association of the U. S. A., Edmund de S. Brunner, David Wilder, Corinne Kirchner and John S. Newberry, Jr., Authors. 278 pages.
Price: $4.00 per copy. 1959.

CREATING A CLIMATE FOR ADULT LEARNING

A carefully edited report of a national conference on architecture for adult education. Sponsored by the Adult Education Association of the U. S. A. and the Division of Adult Education, Purdue University. Edited by Herbert C. Hunsaker and Richard Pierce, 116 pages.
Price: $1.00 per copy. 1959.

ARCHITECTURE FOR ADULT EDUCATION

A graphic guide for those who are planning physical facilities for adult education. Compiled by the AEA Commission on Architecture, 74 pages.
Price: $2.00 per copy.

ADULT EDUCATION ISSUES IN DISPUTE

A series of challenging opinions designed to encourage face to face discussion among individuals who care about these matter, about this movement, and about the outcome of this country's search for freedom and democracy. Published by the Adult Education Association of the U.S.A. Edited by John Walker Powell, 80 pages.
Price: $1.00 per copy. 1960.

INTRODUCING THE AEA

The AEA (Adult Education Association of the United States of America) is a non-profit organization founded in May, 1951, as an instrument for developing a united adult education movement. The general purposes of AEA, as stated in its Constitution, are:

—"To further the concept of adult education as a process continuing throughout life.

—"To promote and develop adult education in the United States by affording opportunities to professional and non-professional adult educators to increase their competence and by encouraging and assisting organizations and agencies . . . to develop adult education activities and to work together in the interests of adult education.

—"To receive and disseminate information about adult education.

—"To promote the balanced development of educational services for adult persons in the United States.

—"To cooperate with adult education agencies internationally."

United in the AEA to further these purposes through a program including field services, conferences, publications, and public relations, are over 12,000 men and women who work with adults in formal and informal educational and training programs. These leaders represent every sector of American society—education, labor, agriculture, industry, religion, social welfare, government service, and a host of voluntary associations.

Adult Education Association of the U.S.A.
1225 Nineteenth Street, Northwest
Washington, D.C. 20036